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ABSTRACT

Six different approaches to teaching values in the classroom are reviewed in this paper. Each approach is reviewed according to: (1) the rationale of the approach; (2) the process of valuing; (3) the teaching methods used to achieve the specific purpose to the approach; (4) an instructional mode or system of procedures used by teachers to actualize the approach; (5) the roles of the student and the teacher in each approach; and (6) characteristics of the teaching and learning materials. The rationale of the values inculcation approach is to instill certain desirable and prechosen values in students. The moral development approach is used primarily to stimulate students to advance their powers of moral reasoning through a series of increasingly advanced and complex stages. The analysis approach to values education rests on helping students develop logical thinking and using scientific inquiry procedures in solving value issues. The clarification approach is to help students clarify and actualize personal values. The action learning approach is to develop students' abilities to act directly in personal and social situations so that they might try out their personal values. The emotional-rational approach to values education attempts to help students understand and adopt a lifestyle based on care and consideration for others as well as self. (SM)

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WAYS OF TEACHING VALUES:

AN OUTLINE OF SIX VALUES APPROACHES

by

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Ways of Teaching Values: An Outline of Six Values Approaches

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Introduction

There are a variety of ways to teach values in the classroom, some of them formal and some informal. Some approaches are highly structured; some are not structured at all. And, some are based on democratic principles; some are not. In this paper six different formal approaches are reviewed. Each approach has distinguishing characteristics. For example, each of the six approaches is based on a distinct view of human nature and the nature of person-environment interaction. Each reflects a definite conception of the nature of the process of valuing. In most cases, approaches embody an agreement by their proponents on the nature and source of values. Also, each seems to imply certain fundamental or ultimate aims. Each approach uses different teaching and learning methods, dictates specific roles which the student and the teacher must adopt, and uses particular characteristic teaching and learning materials.

The six approaches included in this paper are: inculcation, moral development, analysis, clarification, action learning, and emotional-rational. Each approach will be reviewed in the following manner:

1. The rationale of the approach will be identified and the nature of the human, as viewed by proponents of the approach, will be explained.
2. The process of valuing in each approach will be explained. The nature, source, and fundamental or ultimate values which the approach implies will be highlighted.
3. The teaching methods that are used to achieve the specific purpose to the approach will be identified and explained.
4. An instructional model(s), a system(s) of procedures used by teachers to actualize the approach will be delineated.
5. The roles of the student and the teacher in each approach will be identified and explained.
6. Characteristics of the teaching and learning materials will be identified.

Approach Number One: Inculcation

Rationale and Purpose. The rationale of the values Inculcation approach is to instill certain desirable and prechosen values to students. Regardless of the particular values being instilled, proponents of inculcation perceive that humans react to their environment. Society, a rule-making superstructure, is seen as more important than each individual. As Superka (1973) noted, "extreme advocates of inculcation tend to perceive society as a system whose needs and goals transcend and even define the needs and goals of individuals" (p. 37).

According to Krathwohl (1964), the central purpose of inculcation is to socialize students so that certain social, political, moral, or cultural values are interiorized. Students are not encouraged to make free choices, but to act according to pre-specified values.

A secondary purpose of the Inculcation approach may involve meeting the individual's needs of insecurity and competence, or the need to dominate. For example, inculcated values may set bounds of behaviour for students. By acting within these set bounds, the student's feelings of insecurity and inadequacy may be decreased. By inculcating students with their values, teachers could meet their need to dominate and might relieve feelings of inadequacy or insecurity.

Valuing and Values. From the point of view taken by the values Inculcation approach, valuing is considered to be a process of identification and socialization. An individual, sometimes unconsciously, is inculcated with the standards or norms of another person, group, or society. Hopefully, these values are incorporated into the individual's own value system.

Values, from this perspective, are usually conceived to be standards or rules of behaviour which stem from the society or culture. A wide range of values can and have been transmitted through the socialization/identification process. In the political arena, autocratic values, ranging from absolute state control to individualism have been socialized. In the social sphere, a fundamental commitment to whatever values best maintain and develop the health and stability of society and foster the adjustment of individuals to that society might be central. In the moral realm, standards of behaviour such as honesty or charity can be internalized through the socialization process.

Although values may change, some are considered universal and absolute. The traditional Western churches' concept of values having their source in God would be one example of this orientation. Some social studies educators, such as Oliver and Shaver (1966), have expressed a similar position.

> For us the most basic values of the (American) Creed, as they relate to the function of the school in society, are to be treated as more than psychological facts. They describe certain potentially universal characteristics of man, which, at least from our particular cultural frame of reference, make him "human" – such as quest for self-respect, a sense of sympathy and love, a concern for fairness and justice in his dealings with others. (p. 26)

Teaching Methods. Joyce and Weil (1972) and Superka (1975) have identified a variety of teaching methods that can be used to inculcate values. Examples include explanation, manipulation, positive and negative reinforcement, and modeling. These methods can be used separately or in combination with one another to inculcate specific values or to modify a behaviour. Perhaps the most common method used for inculcation is explanation. Teachers often simply tell students what they should believe and how they should behave. Explanations or threats are given to promote and justify why certain values or behaviours are appropriate. The teacher may also manipulate the environment or the experiences to which the students are exposed. Often techniques such as role playing or games and simulations are used.

One of the most widely used and, according to Superka, the most effective method for inculcation is positive and negative reinforcement. Positive reinforcement includes such actions as a teacher praising a student for behaving in accordance with a particular value. Negative reinforcement includes actions such as the teacher punishing a student for behaving contrary to a certain desirable value. Such reinforcement assumes that when students are punished for infractions of rules and praised for obedience they will take on the values associated with the desired behaviour. It is very difficult, if not impossible, for a teacher to avoid some form of reinforcement. Often merely a gesture, smile, or frown will reinforce certain values. Reinforcement, however, can be applied in a conscious and systematic fashion, as it is in behaviour modification.

Behavioural modification requires that the teacher analyze a given situation to determine the goals and purposes of activities and the appropriate methods needed to produce a desired behavioural change. Various techniques are used to achieve desired value outcomes. The most widely used technique involves the use of "tokens." Students are provided with "tokens," such as play money, time off from class, or grade points for doing desirable tasks such as helping other students, remaining quiet in class, or completing an assignment.

Modeling is another effective method of inculcating values in students. Students are given examples of exemplary behaviour and desirable values and encouraged to duplicate the models. Instances of modeling behaviour may be drawn from history, literature, legends, or more directly from examples set by teachers and students. The teacher is a model, in many cases, simply by personifying values like punctuality, enthusiasm for learning, or caring for others. Students often assume modeling roles, setting both positive and negative examples. When a teacher asks a student to read his or her essay to the class, the student is assuming a positive modeling role. The student's work is being singled out as an example to be followed by other students. The praise and recognition the student receives can instill the desire to produce similar essays and may inculcate the values of learning and hard work in other students.

Students can be negative models as well, such as when a teacher asks a poorer student to read his or her essay to the class. The student's work is being singled out as an example not to be followed by other students.

The criticism and embarrassment the student receives instill in other students the desire to or fear to produce better essays and may inculcate the values of learning and hard work.

Instructional Model. A systematic approach to the inculca- tion of values is possible. Superka, Johnson, and Ahrens (1975) developed a rigorous and detailed instructional model for teaching values using the Inculcation approach. The authors combined the taxonomy of educational objectives in the affective domain developed by Krathwohl (1964) with a system of behaviour modification adapted from Sulzer and Mayer (1972). The resulting synthesis is outlined below.

1) Determine the value to be inculcated -- choose the value to be instilled (perhaps in cooperation with students and parents).

2) Identify the level of internalization desired -- select the degree of internalization that will be sought:

   (a) RECEIVING
      (1) Awareness -- learner takes into account that a phenomenon exists.
      (2) Willingness to receive -- learner is willing to listen to stimulus.
      (3) Controlled or selected attention -- learner selects and responds to favored stimuli.
   (b) RESPONDING
      (1) Acquiescence in responding -- learner complies with requirements.
      (2) Willingness to respond -- learner volunteers to exhibit an expected behaviour.
      (3) Satisfaction in response -- learner's reaction is associated with enjoyment.
   (c) VALUING
      (1) Acceptance of a value -- learner's response shows consistent identification with a class or phenomena.
      (2) Preference for a value -- learner seeks out a particular value because of a commitment to it.
      (3) Commitment -- learner displays conviction or loyalty to a cause.
   (d) ORGANIZATION
      (1) Conceptualization of a value -- learner begins to relate one value to other values by means of analysis and synthesis.
      (2) Organization of a value system -- learner begins to integrate a complex of values into an ordered relationship.
   (e) CHARACTERIZATION BY A VALUE OR A VALUE COMPLEX
      (1) Generalized set -- learner orders the world with a consistent and stable frame of reference.
      (2) Characterization -- learner formulates a code of conduct and a value system which is completely internalized.

3) Specify the behavioural goal -- specify the behaviour and the level of performance required to indicate attainment of the value at the particular level of internalization: this behaviour could be in the form of an overt action (such as working for a political candidate) or a certain response to an item on a value or attitude questionnaire.

4) Select an appropriate method -- choose a procedure appropriate to the type of behavioural change desired:

   (a) Increase a behaviour -- positive reinforcement, provision of a model, removal of interfering conditions, games and simulation, role playing.
   (b) Teach a new behaviour -- shaping, chaining, response differentiation, games and simulation, role playing.
   (c) Maintain a behaviour -- one or more of several schedules of intermittent reinforcement.

(d) Reduce or eliminate undersirable behaviour -- withdrawal of reinforcement, punishment, stimulus change.

5) Implement the method

(a) Determine the baseline by measuring the dependent behaviour (the behaviour that is to be changed) before applying the inculcation method.

(b) Apply the method and measure and record the change.

(c) Conduct a probe to determine what factor was responsible for the behavioural change by not applying the behavioural procedures for several days.

(d) Reapply the behavioural procedures.

(e) Maintain the behavioural change.

6) Graph and communicate the results -- collate the recorded data, graph the data, make inferences concerning internalization of values, and communicate the results to appropriate persons. (Superka, et.al. pp. 10-12)

Roles of Student and Teacher. The Inculcation approach assumes that students will take a passive learning role. Students are to follow the teacher's instructions, answer the questions, and modify their behaviour. They are to act in accordance with pre-specified values. Students rarely, if ever, are allowed to make free value choices or to initiate learning activities.

The teacher's role is to lead and initiate learning experiences, structure and manage classroom activities, and act as questioner and clarifier of student's values. Specific values to be inculcated, however, are not always established by the teacher. Developers of instructional materials using the Inculcation approach frequently have made value decisions. Simpson, for example, in his textbook Becoming Aware of Values: A Resource Guide in the Use of Value Games (1972, pp. 14-15) outlines the role that the teacher must take.

Value Category	*Role of the Teacher*
Affection	Provide a climate supporting acceptance, trust, emotional security, love, congeniality, friendship, and intimacy
Respect	Provide an atmosphere in which each individual may achieve identity, a recognized social role, and self-esteem without fear of undeserved deprivation or penalties from others.
Skill	Provide opportunities for awareness and openness and encourage students to find their own truth in every issue without losing sight of their social norms and the significant events of human achievement.
Enlightenment	Provide experiences for awareness and openness and encourage students to find their own truth in every issue without losing sight of their social norms and the significant events of human achievement.
Power	Provide situations in which the student will have opportunities to participate in making important decisions and to exert informal influence according to his/her talents and responsibilities.

Wealth	Provide facilities, materials, and services to promote excellent learning while guiding the student to produce wealth in the form of materials and services to himself/herself.
Well-being	Provide resource and interpersonal relationships which nurture the physical and mental health of each student.
Rectitude	Provide experiences enabling the student to develop a sense of responsibility for his/her own behaviour, consideration for others, and a high sense of integrity.

Characteristic of Materials. Materials using the Inculcation approach usually contain a combination of both modeling and reinforcement. Texts usually draw examples of exemplary behaviour and desirable values from sources such as the Bible, literature, legends, or history. Combined with modeling, reinforcement is usually provided within the text of the story or article. Characters who behave in an exemplary fashion are usually rewarded for their actions, thus providing positive reinforcement. Characters who adopt negative behaviours are always punished, thus providing negative reinforcement.

Questions and discussion sessions related to the story or article usually re-emphasize the positive modeling behaviour and give explanations as to why such behaviour should be followed. Activities such as role-playing, games, and simulations are often used as alternative methods of re-emphasizing the positive values and behaviour.

Approach Number Two: The Moral Development Approach

Rationale and Purpose. The rationale of the Moral Development approach is primarily to stimulate students to advance their powers of moral reasoning through a series of increasingly advanced and complex stages. Kohlberg, perhaps the leading proponent of this approach, sees the purpose of moral development not as the increasing of students' knowledge of cultural values nor as the instilling of an external value in students, but rather as the encouraging of value patterns towards which the students are already tending (Kohlberg, 1966, p. 19).

Proponents of the Moral Development approach see humans as active initiators. An individual cannot fully change the environment, but neither can the environment fully mold the individual. "Genetic structures already inside the person are primarily responsible for the way in which a person internalizes that content, and organizes and transforms it into personally meaningful data" (Superka, 1975, p. 19).

The foundation for the moral development approach was laid by Piaget (1965) and refined and extended by Kohlberg. Within the Moral Development approach, Kohlberg sees moral reasoning as a developmental process over a period of time. He identifies three levels and six stages of development. The concept of stages of moral development refers to the structure of one's reasoning and implies the following set of characteristics:

1. Stages are "structured wholes", or organized systems of thought. This means individuals are consistent in level of moral judgement.
2. Stages form an invariant sequence. Under all conditions except extreme trauma, movement is always forward, never backward. Individuals never skip stages; movement is always to the next stage up. This is true in all cultures.
3. Stages are "hierarchical integrations". Thinking at a higher stage includes or comprehends within it lower-stage thinking. There is a tendency to function at or prefer the highest stage available. (Ontario Ministry of Education, 1976, p. 116).

A main assumption of the Moral Development approach is that students are attracted to high levels of reasoning. When a student is presented with arguments both for and against a course of action, the level of the argument determines its effect. Although students at higher levels can influence the reasoning of those at lower stages, the reverse is not true. Research findings (Turiel, 1973; Blatt, 1969) indicate that students will reject

judgements below their own level as inadequate ways of thinking, but will understand and prefer judgements made from the point of view of one level of development higher than their own. The specific purpose of the Moral Development approach is to create situations in which students are confronted with and interact with instructional materials and other students at a higher stage. The hope is that they will be lifted into that higher stage of "moral development".

Valuing and Values. The Moral Development approach, in contrast to the other approaches, does not conceptualize a specific process of valuing. It is more concerned with how value judgements are made, rather than why they are made or which judgements should be made. How persons develop values would depend, according to this approach, upon their level or stage of moral development. The common valuing activity centers around the process of developing more complex moral reasoning patterns through the series of successive stages.

In examining the Moral Development approach, Superka (1973) was unable to find a specific definition for the term "values". He concludes that proponents of the approach seem less concerned with values per se than with the level moral reasoning involved in attaining those values. Stages or levels of values are crucial. When one examines a value or moral concept, the value seems to become quantitatively different from stage to stage. For example, in Kohlberg's six-stage interpretation of the 'value of human life', persons may hold this value for different moral reasons at each of the six stages. In stage 1, human life is valued because of the physical or social attributes of its possessor. In stage 3, empathy and affection of family members are the bases for holding the value of human life. In stage 6, human life is valued because it is part of the universal value of respect for the individual. One might, therefore, consider the different moral reasons given for holding the value of human life as the "real" values. The values for stage 1 could be social status; for stage 3 empathy and affection for family; and, for stage 6 respect for the idea of the individual.

Kohlberg has often affirmed that justice, fairness, equality, and a sense of human rights are at the core of moral development. The highest stages of reasoning involve the ability and disposition to make value judgements on the basis of universal priniples of justice. Justice is defined as those "universal modes of choosing which we wish all men to apply to all situations which represent morally, self-justifying reasons for action" (Kohlberg and Turiel, 1971, p. 447).

Teaching Methods. The most characteristic method used to stimulate moral development has been the use of moral dilemmas. Moral dilemmas are situations in which values conflict, where claims can be made for several choices, and where each choice is made at the price of another. Students are asked to think about how dilemmas should be resolved, to identify the moral issues involved, and to offer reasons justifying their positions.

Although moral dilemmas might be presented through role-playing, skits, or simulations, the technique most often used to present these moral dilemmas has been the classroom discussion. During discussion, the teacher encourages students to comment on and challenge each other's reasoning. The main focus is on the students' reasoning rather than on particular choice that may be made. Kohlberg has identified several conditions which appear to be important in conducting discussions on moral dilemmas in the classroom. They are:

1. Knowledge of the stage of functioning. (Understanding the meaning of the moral judgements made by the child.)
2. Exposing students to reasoning one stage above their own thoughts.
3. Exposing students to problematic situations which pose genuine moral conflicts and disagreement. (Posing problems and contradictions for the student's current moral structure will lead the student to be dissatisfied with his/her current level.)
4. Creating an atmosphere of interchange and dialogue in which conflicting moral views are compared in an open manner. (The teacher's task here is to help the student see inconsistencies and inadequacies in his/her way of thinking and find ways to resolve such inconsistencies and inadequacies.) (Kohlberg and Turiel, 1971, p. 461)

Some additional methods have been suggested by Frank Simon (1976) and Robert Craig (1976). Simon states that the elementary teacher who instructs children at Kohlberg's pre-conventional level should employ motivational activities which appeal to and develop the child's desire for social approval and acceptance. He suggests that children be rewarded (non-materially) for behaviour which indicates assuming responsibility,

working well with others, and respecting the right of others. Punishment is discouraged since it appeals to the lowest stages of development.

Craig urges that students be given as much freedom as possible in making decisions. To enable students to develop a sense of justice and reciprocity, he advocates that students help make decisions about classroom procedures and regulations. Craig emphasizes that students must recognize the distinction between procedural rules and moral rules. Finally, he claims that there must be a general consistency in the adminstration of school and classroom regulations.

Instructional Model. While working with the Carnagie-Mellon/ Harvard Values Education Project, Jones and Galbraith (1974) created an instructional model for teaching moral development using moral dilemmas. The following instructional model was adapted by Superka, Johnson, and Ahrens (1975) from Jones and Galbraith's work:

1. Confronting a moral dilemma
   (a) introduce the dilemma
   (b) help students to define the terms used in the dilemma
   (c) state the nature of the dilemma
2. Stating a position on the original or alternative dilemma
   (a) help students establish their individual postions on the action
   (b) establish the class response to the position on the action (if there is not enough conflict, introduce an alternative dilemma)
   (c) help students establish the reasons for their individual positions
3. Testing the reasoning for a position on the moral dilemma
   (a) select an appropriate strategy for grouping the students (small groups of students who agree on the action but for different reasons or small groups of students who do not agree on the action)
   (b) help students examine individual reasons with the group or class
   (c) ask probe questions to elicit additional reasoning about the moral problem or a similar one or that focus on a particular issue involved in the dilemma
   (d) examine reasons as they relate to the probe questions
4. Reflecting on the reasoning
   (a) ask students to summarize the different reasons they have heard
   (b) encourage the students to choose the reason which they feel represents the best response to the moral dilemma
   (c) ask students if they believe there is a best answer for this problem
   (d) add any additional reasoning which did not occur from student discussions; these should be added not as the "best" reasons but as additional reasons to ponder (p. 20)

Roles of Student and Teacher. In the model just described, students are to be active learners. They are actively involved in the classroom environment, making decisions and expressing their opinions. Students are required, however, to go beyond the mere sharing of opinions and information. They must reveal thoughts concerning their basic beliefs.

Self-reflection is a prime requisite of the Moral Development approach. This self-reflection is stimulated by three types of student dialogue: (1) student dialogue with teacher, (2) student dialogue with other students, and (3) student dialogue with self. A student's dialogue with him/herself that stimulates reflection upon the student's own thinking process. Reflection leads to a re-evaluation of the student's thinking and, thereby, to the development of higher stages of moral reasoning.

Beyer and Barry (1976) examined the teacher's role in moral development dialogues and suggested that the teacher:

1. Establish a supportive, non-judgemental atmosphere. (It is important to recognize the students' right to hold and express views without sanctioning those views as right or justifiable).
2. Seat students so that they can see and hear each other.
3. Listen carefully to what students say.
4. Ask questions which do not threaten students.
5. Encourage student-to-student interaction.
6. Develop discussion skills in students.
7. Keep the class working constructively by using probe questions, alternative dilemmas, or dilemmas which have been used previously.
8. Plan carefully but remain flexible to cope with substantive diversions (pp. 194-195)

The teacher's role in the moral development approach is to initiate activities which would develop teacher-student, student-student, and student-self dialogues. This does not imply that the teacher is the center and controlling force of the classroom. Rather, the teacher enters the classroom with planned activities and encourages dialogues that might lead to greater moral development.

Characteristics of Materials. Materials embodying the Moral Development approach are usually based on moral issues or dilemmas. A moral dilemmas has five general characteristics:

1. It builds upon work in the course. (Dilemmas may be derived from real-life situations in contemporary society, life experiences of students, or course-related content).
2. It should be as simple as possible, having a central character or primary group or characters.
3. It should be open-minded. (There should be no single, obvious, or culturally approved right answer).
4. It should involve two or more issues that have moral implications.
5. It should offer a choice of actions and pose the question, "What should the central character do?" (This should help the students to engage in moral reasoning about the conflict presented in the dilemma) (Beyer and Barry, 1976, p. 198)

Dilemmas can be presented in a variety of ways. These ways include written or oral forms, films, recordings, sound-film- strips, or stories and historical documents. Kohlberg (1976) has suggested that moral dilemma topics should be centered around the following ten universal moral issues:

1. Punishment
2. Property
3. Roles and concerns of affection
4. Roles and concerns of authority
5. Law
6. Life
7. Liberty
8. Distributive justice
9. Truth
10. Sex

Approach Number Three: Analysis Approach

Rationale and Purpose. The rationale of the Analysis approach to values education rests on helping students develop logical thinking and using scientific inquiry procedures in solving value issues. In addition, value Analysis attempts to help students develop their own values in response to value conflicts within society.

According to Superka (1975), the Analysis approach views humans as a rational beings who can attain the highest good by subordinating feelings and passions to logic and scientific method. Only by suppressing personal feelings can people resolve value issues according to logic and science. "The philosophical basis for the analysis approach ... seems to be a fusion of the rationalist and empiricist view of human nature" (pp. 24-25).

From the perspective used in the Analysis approach, our society is seen as free, democratic, and plural. Many active groups exist and act. Oliver and Shaver (1966) have postulated that this plurality is necessary because:

> ... it is the only natural mechanism that can insure some freedom of choice. Pluralism, as we are using the term, implies the existence of not only difference or political partisan groups within the society, but of various sub-cultures that claim the mutual respect of one another, at least to the extent that there is free communication among them. (p.10)

In other words, Oliver and Shaver envision that a democratic society requires a multiplicity of positions with respect to the important issues in society. Groups which support these various positions must be able to negotiate with, rather than confront, one another.

The rationale of the Analysis approach involves, therefore, the development of logical thinking and the use of the scientific method so that students can participate and resolute open conflicts between various groups in society. Such resolutions are seen as essential to the continued existence of a free and democratic society.

More specific purposes of the Analysis approach have been outlined by Coombs (1971):

1. Teaching students to rate a value object in a particular way.
2. Helping students make the most rational judgement they can about the value object in question
3. Teaching students to make rational value judgements.
4. Teaching students how to operate as members of a group attempting to come to a common value judgement about some value object. (p. 19)

Valuing and Values. The Analysis approach conceives of valuing primarily as cognitive, intellectual inquiry into the goodness or worth of phenomena. Bond (1971) notes that proponents stress that valuing is "guided not by the dictates of heart and conscience, but by rules and procedures of logic" (p. 81). The valuing process involves the rigorous application of logical thought and scientific procedure to any issue.

Since values are based on facts, they are verifiable. Valuing and value judgements are subject to tests of logic and truth as much as any other aspect of the real world. Coombs (1971) specified the following as standards which a value judgement must meet to qualify as being rational and defensible.

1. The purported facts supporting the judgement must be true or well confirmed.
2. The facts must be genuinely relevant, i.e., they must actually have relevance for the person making the judgement.
3. Other things being equal, the greater the range of relevant facts taken into account in making the judgement, the more adequate the judgement is likely to be.
4. The value principle implied by the judgement must be acceptable to the person making the judgement. (p. 20)

Most authors who support the Analysis approach point to survival as the ultimate value, and to constant, rigorous use of reason in the world as the best means to achieve it. Other proponents such as Oliver and Shaver (1966) hold that human dignity is the fundamental value of our society against which all other social values must be measured. Although human dignity is considered to be the most fundamental, Oliver and Shaver prescribe other basic values, called "creed values", that should be respected and applied as standards when making value judgements. These values include the quest for self-respect, a sense of sympathy and love, a concern for fairness and justice, majority rule, and due process. "Creed values" help to define and suggest means of achieving the more basic value of human dignity (pp. 23-28), they suggest.

> The Analysis approach is usually applied to issues involving public policy or social values rather than issues involving personal values. The approach does not focus explicitly on moral issues; however, statements are presumed to be factual statements and thus subject to empirical study.

IV. Justification of criteria.

A. Can criteria for appraising consequences be justified? How?

B. If students disagree on criteria, and therefore in their appraisal of consequences, how can this difference be treated? What relationship ought to exist between one's criteria and one's basic philosophy of life?

C. Are students consistent in their use of criteria? (Hunt and Metcalf, 1968, p. 134)

The Columbia Associates model of Massialas and Cox (1966) assumes that social issues can be resolved only when a dissenting group of students can identify the basic value involved. When students have reached agreement on a high-level value, the issue in conflict can be considered in terms of whether it leads to consequences consistent with that value. A scientific method of inquiry can be used to determine which course of action will most likely result in the realization of the higher-level value accepted by the students (Banks and Clegg, 1977, pp. 412-413). The authors have summarized their decision-making model by using an example:

Columbia Associates Model

1. What value judgement is made regarding the occupation of persons in the United States? Given value judgement: White persons, particularly white Christians, should be given the more skilled jobs, the positions of executive authority in most businesses, high government offices, and professional positions.
2. What opposing value judgement is also made by many persons in the United States which is clearly contradictory to the value judgement given above?
3. If the given judgement were acted upon in the United States, what consequences are predicted in terms of the practices and policies which would be put into effect? What factual consequences would be expected to result if the given value judgement were acted upon?
4. Can you offer any proof that any of the above predictions for the given value judgement would actually take place?
5. If the opposing value judgement were acted upon in the United States, what consequences are predicted in terms of the practices and policies which would be put into effect? What factual consequences would be expected to result if the opposing value judgement were acted upon?
6. Can you offer any proof that any of the above predictions for the opposing value judgement would actually take place?
7. What third value would you propose as being relatively noncontroversial and logically appropriate to use for judging between the given and opposing values?
8. Which of the value judgements, the given or opposing, appears to be more clearly instrumental in achieving the third, relatively noncontroversial value?
9. In a concise statement support your choice of either the given or opposing value by giving the reasons for choosing the one and for rejecting the other.
10. In summary, assuming you have proved your case, state the relationship between the given or opposing value judgement and the third, noncontroversial value in the following formula:

"If either the given value judgement OR the opposing value judgement - NOT BOTH, then (the third, noncontroversial value) will be achieved." (Massailas and Cox, 1966, p. 166)

Oliver, Shaver and Larkins have based their Jurisprudential model on the assumption that public controversy can be resolved through rational discussion. The authors suggest that public controversial issues involve three components: (1) a moral value issue, (2) a definitional issue, and (3) a fact-explanation issue. Strategies which can resolve value issues include illuminating the relationship between specific and higher order

values, determining value conflicts resulting from inconsistencies in personal positions, and dealing with incompatable frameworks (Banks and Clegg, 1977, pp. 418-420).

The authors have noted the difficulty of conceptualizing their method in terms of an instructional model. However, they have summarized the major intellectual operations as follows:

1. Abstracting General Values from Concrete Situations
2. Using General Value Concepts as Dimensional Constructs
3. Identifying Conflicts Between Value Constructs
4. Identifying a Class of Value Conflict Situations
5. Discovering or Creating Value Conflict Situations which are Analagous to the Problem under Consideration
6. Working toward a General Qualified Position
7. Testing the Factual Assumptions behind a Qualified Value Position
8. Testing the Relevance of Statements (Oliver and Shaver, 1966, p. 166)

The Value-Inquiry model proposed by Banks and Clegg emphasizes the analysis of problems decision-making situations in society. Using this model, students must identify the key concepts of the dispute, recognize values, identify relevant facts, identify and order alternatives, and predict consequences (Banks and Clegg, 1977, pp. 433-441). A summary of this model is presented below:

Value-Inquiry Model

1. Defining and recognizing value problems: Observation - discrimination.
2. Describing value-relevant behaviour: Description - discrimination.
3. Naming values exemplified by behaviour described: Identification - description.
4. Determining conflicting values in behaviour described: Identification - analysis.
5. Hypothesizing about sources of values analyzed: Hypothesizing (citing data to support hypothesis).
6. Naming alternative values to those exemplified by behaviour deserved: Recall.
7. Hypothesizing about the possible consequences of the values analyzed: Predicting, comparing, contrasting.
8. Declaring value preferences: Choosing.
9. Stating reasons, sources, and possible consequences of value choices: Justifying, hypothesizing, predicting. (Banks and Clegg, 1977, p. 433)

Although the models proposed by these authors differ, each emphasizes the rational analysis of value statements and judgements as well as the resolution of value conflicts. In each model students are asked to follow specific steps to analyze public or social issues, to come to a decision, and to justify that decision.

Roles of Student and Teacher. The Analysis approach requires that students take an active learning role that centers on solving problems of public controversy. This role necessitates that students identify types of issues, ask and gather evidence and information, identify inconsistencies in data and in arguments, and use and recognize analogies.

Classroom discussions (student-teacher and student-student dialogues) are essential components of this approach. As a result, students are encouraged to listen and respond to different points of view, identify relevant questions, and summarize different value positions. They must make decisions and express their opinions. The teacher's role in this approach is the creation of the proper conditions for the solving of public issues within the classroom. The teacher's major responsibility is to choose appropriate public issues, to provide enough relevant data to begin the discussion process, and to construct model analogies from which students may begin to develop their own.

Creating analogies and guiding discussion are complex tasks for the teacher. Shaver and Oliver (1966) have characterized the teacher's position in the following way:

> The role of the teacher in such a dialogue is complex, requiring that he think on two levels at the same time. He must first know how to handle himself as he challenges the student's position and as his own position is challenged by the student. This is the Socratic role. Second, he must be sensitive to and aware of the general process of clarification or obscuration that takes place as the dialogue unfolds. He must, that is, be able to identify and analyze the complicated strategies being employed by various protagonists to persuade others that a stand is 'reasonable' or 'correct'. Nor is it sufficient for the teacher simply to teach a process of questioning evidence, questioning assumptions or pointing out 'loaded words'. In matter of public policy, factual issues are generally handmaids to ethical or legal stands which cannot be sloughed off as 'only matters of opinion'. Clarification of evaluative and legal issues, then, becomes a central concern. (p. 115)

For vigorous analysis of public issues to take place, the teacher must create a classroom environment which is open and sometimes abrasive. The teacher's actions must, however, be tempered with kindness, tolerance, and fairness. Individual student's views and opinions are to be equally respected and subjected to scrutiny.

Characteristics of Materials. As with the Moral Development approach, materials embodying the Analysis approach are usually based on moral issues or dilemmas. Issues have the same five general characteristics as those used for moral development. However, differences exist: (1) the issues are always based on social value issues or community problems rather than personal dilemmas and (2) the issues usually embody not only moral or ethical disputes but also factual and definitional (language) disputes.

Textbooks based on the Analysis approach present issues in the form of short articles and/or stories. Usually a number of readings are grouped around current topics of public controversy.

Approach Number Four: Clarification Approach

Rationale and Purpose. The rationale of the Clarification approach is to help students clarify and actualize personal values. Additionally this approach attempts to help students develop both rational thinking and emotional awareness in order to explain their own personal behaviour patterns. The major goal is to achieve consistency between one's personal behaviour and the values that one holds.

Raths, Harmin and Simon (1966) believe that any approach which attempts to impose values is both unethical and unsound. They recommend that students be allowed to create their own value system. The emphasis should be on individual freedom, healthy spontaneous growth, and respect for the values of other people, societies, and cultures.

According to Superka (1975), the Clarification approach views humans as initiators of interaction within society and their environment. Internal rather than external factors are seen as the prime determinants of human behaviour. The individual is free to change the environment to meet his or her needs. In order to achieve this, however, a person must use all of his or her resources - including rational and emotional processes, conscious and unconscious feelings and mind and body functions. (p. 31)

The more specific purposes of the Clarification approach have been outlined by Simon (1966):

1. Values clarification helps students "become more purposeful". Students who know what they want will not fritter away time on pursuits that don't seem beneficial (p.40).
2. Values clarification helps students "become more productive". When students know what they want, they channel all energy to achieve those goals (p. 41).
3. Values clarification helps students "sharpen their critical thinking". Students who have clarified their values can be seen through other peoples' foolishness. They seem to get the larger picture of what is good, beautiful, and right, and to know what is wrong (p.42).
4. Values clarification helps students "have better relations with each other". When students know what they want, believe strongly, and follow up on commitments, they can be counted on by other students. When conflicts do arise, they know how to work them through (p. 42).

Valuing and Values. The Clarification approach sees valuing as complex, changing, integrated, and centered on the individual. The most explicit statement of the valuing process from this point of view is that of Raths, Harmin and Simon (1966). They have formulated the following seven-fold outline of the process of valuing:

1. Choosing from alternatives.
2. Choosing after careful consideration of the consequences of each alternative
3. Choosing freely.
4. Prizing, being glad of one's choice.
5. Prizing, being willing to affirm publicly one's choice.
6. Acting upon one's choice, incorporating choices into behaviour.
7. Acting upon one's choice repeatedly, over time. (Raths, et.al. 1966, p. 259)

Values, as defined by Raths and his associates, have resulted from the seven sub-processes of valuing. Thus, values have been reflected upon, freely chosen, internally prized, publicly affirmed, and incorporated into behaviour repeatedly over time. According to Raths, values are not needs but are closely associated with basic human needs. They are not merely predispositions to behave but behaviour itself (pp. 27-37).

The most fundamental goal of the Clarification approach is self-actualization. That which enhances self-actualization is good; that which hinders self-actualization is evil. For an examination of Rath's conception of valuing, certain specific process level values stand out. These include thoughtful reflection, free choice, and consistent behaviour and might represent the ultimate, intrinsic values of the Clarification approach of valuing. Inevitably they lead one to self-actualization, Rath believes.

Teaching methods. The Clarification approach, more than any other value education approach, utilizes a wide range of teaching methods. Some of these, like role playing, hypothetical, contrived and real value-laden situations, group discussions are used in other approaches. Methods specific to clarification include self-analysis, listening techniques, games, journals, songs, and interviews. As a result of Simon's work, the Clarification approach has concentrated on developing these teaching methods into specific valuing strategies which are designed to actualize one or more aspects of the valuing process.

The self-reaction worksheet is a teaching strategy which exempilfies the characteristics common to most of the teaching methods used in values clarification. The worksheet usually consists of short readings, questions, drawings, or activities designed to stimulate students to reflect on their own thoughts, feelings, actions, and values.

Instructional Model. The instructional model of the Clarification approach is based directly on the seven-fold process of valuing developed by Raths, Harmin and Simon (1966). Unlike some analysis approach models, this model is not a rigid set of procedures, but a flexible set of guidelines. The following instructional model was adapted by Superka, Johnson and Ahrens (1975) from Raths et.al. (1966):

1. Choosing from alternatives -- help students discover, examine, and choose from among available alternatives.
2. Choosing thoughtfully -- help students weigh alternatives thoughtfully by reflecting on the consequences of each alternative.
3. Choosing freely -- encourage students to make choices freely and to determine how past choices were made.
4. Prizing one's choice -- provide students the opportunities to make public affirmations of their choices
5. Affirming one's choice -- provide students the opportunities to make public affirmations of their choices.
6. Acting upon one's choice -- encourage students to act, behave, and live in accordance with their choices.
7. Acting repeatedly, over time -- help students to examine and to establish repeated behaviours or patterns of actions based on their choices. (p. 32)

Roles of Student and Teacher. In the Clarification approach, students are to be active. Students both participate in the classroom environment and are to initiate activities. The approach requires students to clarify their own values and increase their understanding of themselves. To accomplish this task students must

participate in the various clarification activities, express their opinions and value stances, listen to other students' opinions and statements, and compare their own perceptions and experiences with those of their classmates.

The teacher's role is that of facilitator and a leader. The teacher must create the proper classroom atmosphere and assist students in becoming aware of their own value positions. The teacher process involves several essential elements:

1. The teacher must make efforts to elicit attitudinal and value statements from students.
2. The teacher must accept the thoughts, feelings, beliefs, and ideas of students non-judgementally, without trying to change them or criticize them.
3. The teacher must raise questions with students which help them think about their values. The teacher is permitted to express opinions or views, but only as examples of ways to look at things. (Raths et.al, 1966, pp. 165-183)

Characteristics of the Materials. Materials embodying the Clarification approach usually are characterized by a series of group exercises called "strategies". These "strategies" are designed to help students clarify their own values and contain what Raths, Harmin and Simon (1966) call "clarifying responses". "Clarifying responses" may involve either oral or written exercises which focus on the following questions:

1. Where do you suppose you first got the idea?
2. What else did you consider before you picked this?
3. What would be the consequences of each alternative available?
4. Are you glad you feel that way?
5. Would you tell the class the way you feel sometimes?
6. I hear what you are for; now is there anything you can do about it? Can I help?
7. Have you felt this way for some time? (pp. 63-65)

These questions are linked to the seven-step process of arriving at a value.

Clarification approach "strategies" are designed so that students experience important and personal aspects of conflicting confusing values. Typical areas of value conflict or confusion found in the clarification materials include politics, religion, work, leisure time, school, love, sex, money, aging, death, health, race, war-peace, rules, and authority.

Approach Number Five: Action Learning Approach

Rationale and Purpose. The rationale of the Action Learning approach is to develop students' abilities to act directly in personal and social situations so that they might cry out their personal values. In addition, this approach attempts to enhance the students' sense of community and to develop their abilities to exert influence in public affairs. Superka (1975) claims that the distinguishing characteristic of the action learning approach is that it provides specific opportunities for students to act on their values. Values education is not confined to the classroom or group setting, but extends it to individual experiential learning in the community (p.35).

Action, from this perspective, is not just the "act of doing". Developers such as Newman (1975) have carefully defined action as representing "assertiveness as opposed to pasivity, a tendency to exert influence on reality, to take some responsibility for rather than be controlled by events" (p. 7). Action is not divorced from thought and reflection. Newman (1975) states that, "action presupposes reflection, for in order to act one must have conscious thoughts as to one's aims. Though the quality of reflection may vary, it is impossible to act without reflecting about one's intent" (pp.19-20).

The Action Learning approach perceives humans as being interactive. Humans do not totally fashion their environment, nor are they totally fashioned by it. Humans and their environment, from this perspective, are mutual and interactive co-creators. Bigge (1971) clarifies this concept.

> The basic principle of interaction is that nothing is perceivable or conceivable as a thing-in-itself; no object has meaning apart from its context. Hence, everything is construed in relation to other objects. More specifically, a thing is perceived as a figure against a background, experienced from a given angle or direction of envisionment. Persons in a given culture have a common social matrix, and a person devoid of a society is a rather meaningless concept (p. 40).

Newman (1977) has outlined the more specific purpose of the Action Learning approach. Students will develop competencies to:

1. communicate effectively in spoken and written language;
2. collect and logically interpret information on problems of public concern;
3. describe political-legal decision-making processes;
4. rationally justify personal decision on controversial public issues and strategies for action with reference to principles of justice and constitutional democracy;
5. work cooperatively with others;
6. discuss concrete personal experiences of self and others in ways that contribute to resolution of personal dilemmas encountered in civic action and that relate these experiences to more general human issues;
7. use selected technical skills as they are required for exercise of influence of specific issues (p. 6).

Valuing and Values. Proponents of Action Learning view valuing in much the same way as those who favor the clarification approach. Valuing is a process of self-actualization in which students consider alternatives, make choices, and prize, affirm, and act upon them. The Action Learning approach, however, extends the valuing concept in two ways: (1) it places more emphasis on action-taking than is reflected in the Clarification approach and (2) it views the process of self-actualization as being tempered by social factors and group pressures. This second concept draws heavily upon Dewey's theory of valuing.

Dewey viewed valuing as the process of constantly reconstructing values as means to ends. New values then become means to other ends. The process emphasizes the "social" and "interactive" aspects of valuing. As Dewey (1932) stated; "Valuing is as much a matter of interaction of a person with his social environment as walking is an interaction of legs with a physical environment" (p. 318-319).

Two characteristics distinguish the Action Learning approach's concept of the nature of values from those of the other educational value approaches. One is related to the proposed source of values and the other to the instrumental nature of values. The first distinguishing characteristic is that values do not have their source either in the person or in the physical or social environment. Their source lies instead in the "simultaneous and mutual interactive" process (Bigge's phrase) between the person and the environment. "Values do not inhere in objects, activities, persons, or anything else; they arise through intelligent relationships of persons with other persons and with objects around them" (Bigge, 1971, p. 64). According to this approach, the person may be the prime initiator of the process of reconstructing values, but values do not inherently reside inside the person.

This "interactive" source of values leads to the second distinguishing characteristic of values. The Action Learning approach sees values as experimental and instrumental means rather than absolute ends. Bigge (1971) offers this explanation of means becoming ends.

> Even our most basic ideals and ends should be shaped as hypotheses to provide satisfaction for human needs and desires. Values, then, are relative, not absolute; they are relative to developing human needs and desires, reflectively evaluated within an individual-social context ... (p. 64).

> Values, then, are instrumental, not final; they are exposed to a continuous test of experience. The appropriateness of an act is dependent, not on some absolutistic standard, but upon the individual and group purposes and foresights which are involved in it (p. 50).

Values, from the action learning perspective, are instrumental criteria for determining goodness and worth in varying situations. The specific values that are most frequently mentioned in this approach are: democracy, freedom, equality, justice, peace, happiness, survival, rationality, efficiency, truth, self-determination, and human dignity (Newman, 1976, p. 14).

Teaching Methods. The Action Learning approach utilizes many teaching methods that are applied in the Moral Development, Analysis, and Clarification approaches. These methods include individual or group study of social issues, the exploration of moral dilemmas within the issue, value clarification activities related to the social issue, role playing, sensitivity and listening techniques, simulations and games, and small group or entire class discussions.

Two teaching methods are unique, however, to this approach. The first technique involves skill development in group organization and interpersonal relations, either with the student body or with the community at large. The second involves activities that strive for social change within the community by having students engage in political or legislative experiences.

Instructional Model. The action learning instructional model is conceived of as circular rather than linear. That is, one may enter into the model at several points and move backward or forward through the various steps. The following instructional model was taken from Superka, Johnson and Ahrens (1975).

1. Becoming aware of a problem or issue -- help student become conscious of a problem troubling others or oneself.
2. Understanding the problem or issue and taking a position -- help student gather and analyze information and to take a personal value position on the issue.
3. Deciding whether or not to act -- help student to clarify values about taking action and to make a decision about personal involvement.
4. Planning strategies and action steps -- help students to brainstorm, and organize possible actions and provide skill, practice and anticipatory rehearsal.
5. Implementing strategies and taking action -- provide specific opportunities for carrying out one's plans either as an individual working alone or as a member of a group.
6. Reflecting on actions taken and considering next steps -- guide students into considering the consequences of the actions taken for others, oneself, and in relation to the problem; also, guide students into thinking about possible steps. (p. 37)

Roles of Student and Teacher. Students are to take a very active learning role. They are active not only in the classroom environment but also in the community. Instruction begins with a problem or issue which is meaningful to the student. Once students properly identify problems they are required to identify the conflicting values involved, analyze the significant information, plan strategies for taking action, and take appropriate action to cause social change. Finally, they must reflect upon an action to determine whether further action is necessary or if a different "plan of attack" should be adopted. Students, from this perspective, determine whether they will develop, learn and become responsive and responsible to themselves and their community.

The teacher's role within this approach is that of a leader and an assistant, a person who is engaged in mutual interaction with students. The teacher must be sensitive to the direction the student wants to go and must structure the learning experiences along the lines indicated by the student. If the student has stopped progressing, the teacher must provide stimulus and try to determine the goals the student is trying to achieve. The teacher is required to help students define the social issue and clarify their values in relation to the issue. The teacher must provide students with, or direct them to significant information, assist them in gathering and analyzing this data, and advise the students on appropriate social action. In some cases the teacher provides some supervision and guidance when the action is taken. Finally, the teacher must plan activities which would cause the students to reflect on the action that was taken.

Although the student initiates specific activities, the teacher chooses topics or areas of study and, through suggestions, may influence the specific activities. Above all, this approach demands that the teacher is in close interaction with his students.

Characteristics of Materials. Since students have such an active role in determining the activities in action learning, classroom materials embodying this approach are characterized by their diversity in both topics and activities. Materials often contain a list of suggested projects that student may attempt. These projects in many

cases do not suggest specific activities but are used as a stimulus for students to develop their own action learning activities. Examples of four action learning projects that have been developed by Newman (1972) are:

1. Group A wishes to protect land surrounding a glacial pond from development into a high-rise apartment complex. The developer, who has already purchased the land, has requested that the city council change the zoning from single family to high-rise apartments so that construction may begin. Group A decides to do all it can to prevent this change in zoning.
2. Group B wants to help students in trouble with the law. After visiting various juvenile detention facilities, it decides to make weekly visits to a state detention center for boys, spending an hour playing cards, dancing, and talking.
3. Group C wants to form a Black Students' union to increase communication and a sense of community among Blacks scattered in four different high schools. They decide to publish a student newspaper and to promote a cultural festival. They want to attract more Blacks into their organization and to learn of their heritage through films, speakers, and books which have not been previously available in school.
4. Mike, a high school student, wants to learn something about the courts and the legal profession. He arranges an internship with the clerk of a local judge. Mike spends several hours each week observing courtroom procedures, discussing this with the clerk, and occasionally with the judge. The clerk helps to explain the operation of the system and reasons for the judge's decision. (p. 1)

Materials may take forms very different from those suggested by Newman. Kirschenbaum (1975), for example, has developed what he terms "sensitivity modules". These activities are designed so students can have short experiences to increase their awareness of social issues. Some of the suggested activities are:

1. Wear old clothes and sit in the waiting room of the State Employment Office. Listen, observe, talk to some of the people sitting next to you. Read the announcements on the bulletin board, etc.
2. Go to an inner-city elementary school and read a story to a child in kindergarten or first grade. The child must be held in your lap.
3. Live for three days on the amount of money a typical welfare mother receives to feed a son or daughter closest to your age. (p. 316)

Barr (1976) suggested an even broader range of activities which would encourage teachers and students to move beyond the classroom to school-based and community-based learning activities.

1. Outdoor Learning Programs: with emphasis on rigorous programs of hiking, back-packing, canoeing, etc.
2. Cross-Cultural Exchange Program: which enable students to have in-depth "immersion" experiences in cultures different from their own.
3. Service Program: which enable students to provide volunteer service to local community agencies.
4. Internship Programs: which enable students to have extended experiences with leaders in private business, government, social agencies, cultural agencies, etc.
5. Travel Programs: which enable student to combine academic study with on-site visitations and experiences. These often involve cross-cultural experiences, historical studies, and scientific investigations. (p. 107)

Approach Number Six: Emotional-Rational Approach

Rationale and Purpose. The Emotional-Rational approach to values education attempts to help students understand and adopt a lifestyle based on care and consideration for others as well as self. McPhail, perhaps the leading proponent of this approach, sees its aim neither as the increasing of the students' capacity to argue morally nor their ability to say "good thing", but rather as their capacity to know what "love in action" is, to act with love and affection -- act warmly and caringly (1978, p. 5). This approach is strongly based on Wilson's idea that moral decisions are arrived at by a variety of both affective (emotional) and cognitive (rational) processes.

The rationale for this approach is based on the assumption that one can extrapolate the "ought" from the "is". To quote McPhail:

> ... If you want to know what people need and how to meet that need, the first step is to ask them to identify and articulate their problems as they see them and not to tell them what their problems are. The boys' and girls' own use of "good" and "bad" in the survey showed us how the "ought" or morality should come from the "is" of reality. To a large extent, the rational, the emotive, and the moral converge on the question of reciprocal behaviour, which is seen to have a universal rather than a merely individualistic or subjective quality. (Learning to Care, Teacher's Guide, 1972, p. 30)

The Emotional-Rational approach, like the action learning approach, perceives humans as interactive. Humans do not totally fashion their environment nor are they totally fashioned by it. For McPhail, students create (from their needs) the values and beliefs they wish to live by. He says, however, that "we all know that we cannot separate ourselves at any time from the world we live in" (1972, p. 82).

The Emotional-Rational approach differs from Action Learning in that it stresses feelings or the emotional side rather than the rational side of human nature. The approach does not reject rationalism, nor does it advocate unbridled expression of one's emotion. Rather, humans are viewed more as a feeling beings rather than reasoning machines. People co-create with their environment, but in an emotional-rational rather than in just a rational manner.

With respect to students, the more specific purposes of the Emotional-Rational approach are:

1. to improve their ability to recognize their own and others' needs, interests and feelings
2. to improve their ability to interpret accurately the messages, both verbal and non-verbal, which other persons are sending
3. to improve their ability to predict the possible and probable consequences of actions
4. to improve their ability to see things from another's point of view
5. to develop a strong sense of identity and see themselves as people who have contribution to make in their community
6. to identify the various legal and social rules of our society
7. to identify the various expectations and pressures put on them by society
8. to learn to choose, to decide in a particular situation, what they will do so long as it is consistent with the needs, interests, and feelings of others as well as their own (McPhail, 1972, pp. 63-125)

Valuing and Values. Proponents of the Emotional-Rational approach view valuing in much the same manner as do those who favor the Clarification and Action Learning approaches. Valuing is a process of self-actualization in which students consider alternatives, make choices, and prize, affirm, and act upon those choices. The Emotional-Rational approach differs, however, in that the valuing process has both an emotional and a rational aspect. The emotional aspect means that valuing is seen as a process of experiencing and expressing one's own intense personal feelings of good and evil. The rational aspect means that valuing is seen as the process of choosing and acting on one's values only if these values are consistent with the needs, interests, and feelings of others.

Values, according to this approach, are personal emotions or feelings that indicate moral approval or disapproval. Values are caused by putting into action one's needs, emotions, and feelings. From this perspective values are means of meauring one's emotional state. McPhail states that the basic aim of this approach is for students to know, feel, and experience "love in action" (1972, p. 5). "Love in action" is the term used to describe students' behaviours when they exhibit care, affection, toleration, understanding, responsibility, sensitivity, compassion, concern, or respect towards other people as well as themselves. These behaviours would fulfill, according to McPhail, "the fundamental human need to get on with others, to love and be loved" (1972, p. 3).

Teaching Methods. McPhail (1978) has listed a variety of methods that can help students know and experience "love in action". Each method should involve small groups, ideally not larger than ten or smaller than four. These methods include:

1. expressive and communication techniques such as speaking, writing prose, poetry and plays, painting, modelling with clay, and photography

2. discussion techniques, such as small group and entire class discussions. This method should be limited in its use, however, since few members of the class are good at it (p. 137)
3. drama techniques with students writing and acting in their own plays
4. role playing based on situations common to students' experiences
5. simulations involving family, school, or community problems
6. real life involvement such as helping individuals within the community (1978, pp. 137-139)

Instructional Model. McPhail and his associates have not developed a specific instructional model for the Emotional- Rational approach. However, they have made a number of suggestions of how to organize activities depending upon which teaching method is employed.

The materials used in the Emotional-Rational approach are characterized by their format. They start with situations which are immediately personal and sensitive in nature and move towards less personal situations concerning dilemmas involving the community, the country, the world. This format can be broken down into five sections:

1. Sensitivity - designed to improve the students' ability to recognize their own and others' needs, interests, and feelings, and to help them understand why individuals behave as they do.
2. Consequences - designed to improve the students' ability to predict the possible and probable consequences of actions.
3. Points of view - designed to help students decide on action after considering the other individuals involved.
4. Proving the rule - designed to help students find solutions to problems involving the community at large.
5. What would you have done - designed to help students understand real, historical, world problems (1972, pp. 101-125).

McPhail (1972) has stated that students must also develop the four abilities of "moral communication".

1. Reception ability, meaning the ability to be, and remain "switched on" to the right wavelength, to listen, to look to receive the messages sent out by others.
2. Interpretative ability, meaning the ability to interpret accurately the messages which another person is sending, what he really means, what he really wants.
3. Response ability, meaning the ability to decide on and adopt appropriate reactions - to meet anothers' needs. It involves decision making, evaluation, the use of reason as well as psychological knowhow.
4. Message ability, meaning the ability to translate appropriate reactions into clearly transmitted unambivalent messages. (p. 63)

The following instructional model has been inferred from the various organizational suggestions made by McPhail (1972 and 1978). It is flexible in that any of the various teaching methods suggested by McPhail may be used at any point.

1. Sensitivity - students recognize their own and others' needs, interested and feelings.
   - 1.1 Reception ability - what are the persons' needs, interests and feelings in the situation?
   - 1.2 Interpretive ability - what is each person saying, both verbally and non-verbally, in this situation?
   - 1.3 Response ability - how are they reacting to each other in the situation?
   - 1.4 Message ability - how can they express what each person's needs, interests, and feelings are?
2. Consequences - students predict the possible consequences of the actions in the situation.
   - 2.1 Reception ability - what are the probable consequences of the situation?

2.2 Interpretive ability - are the probable consequences going to achieve what the people in the situation really want?

2.3 Response ability - what are the other possible consequences? What is the most desirable consequence? Is the most probable consequence the most desirable consequence?

2.4 Message ability - how should the people in the situation act differently to bring about the most desirable consequence?

3. Points of View - students decide on action after considering the other individuals involved.

3.1 Reception ability - what is each person's point of view in the situation?

3.2 Interpretive ability - what is each person saying, both verbally and non-verbally, to express his point of view?

3.3 Response ability - are there other responses they could have made to express their points of view? Was the response they made the most appropriate one to express their points of view?

3.4 Message ability - are they communicating their points of view clearly and unambiguously?

4. Proving the Rule - students examine the legal and social problems involved in the home, in the school, or in the neighborhood.

4.1 Reception ability - what are the legal or social problems of the groups of people represented in this situation?

4.2 Interpretive ability - how are these problems expressed in the situation? What are the symptoms of each problem?

4.3 Response ability - what reaction could each of the groups have to solve their problem? What reaction should they have?

4.4 Message ability - how should each group carry out their decision from reaction to action?

5. What Would You Have Done? - students examine what has happened in specific situation in the modern world.

5.1 Reception ability - what actually happened in the situation?

5.2 Interpretive ability - what have the various people or groups of people involved said about what happened in the situation? How do they feel about what happened in the situation?

5.3 Response ability - what would your reaction be in the situation if you were each of the people or groups involved? What should it be?

5.4 Message ability - can you express how you would have felt in the situation? Can you express what you would have done in the situation? (1972, pp. 125-133) and (1978, pp. 134-151).

Roles of Student and Teacher. Students are to take an active learning role. Their personal needs, feelings, and emotions make up the actual subject material for this approach. The situations examined are selected by the student groups on the basis of interest and relevance. Students are actively involved in the classroom environment, expressing their emotions and opinions, making decisions, and developing and acting in a caring and loving manner.

The Emotional-Rational approach demands that students observe and develop the ability to recognize various verbal and non-verbal cues which other individuals give about their needs, interests, and feelings. Students must develop the ability to predict the consequences of actions and acquire knowledge of both the legal and social rules of their community. Finally, students must practice many forms of creative expression including writing, painting, photography, and acting.

The teacher's role is to act as a facilitator to free students to accept and express a basic concern for the welfare of others. McPhail (1972) has indicated that morality is not taught but caught. Therefore, the teacher must take a modeling role, demonstrating care and consideration for each student. The teacher is also required to create a trusting classroom atmosphere where students can express their real and uncensored feelings about issues without fear. This classroom climate requires that teachers work with students to remove blocks to

communication, and work again with students to build "moral communication" abilities. Finally, the approach dictates that the teacher must select classroom materials which are of interest and relevance to students, must provide detailed information (if any) required by the students, and must direct the students' work so that they will put their values and attitudes into practice.

Characteristics of Materials. Materials embodying the Emotional-Rational approach contain a large number of situational readings. The materials have seven specific characteristics:

1. The readings are brief to encourage students to make the situation their own by adding their own personal details.
2. The readings usually contain two or three characters.
3. The situation in the readings demands a reaction on the part of the student, if he identifies with one of the characters.
4. The reading is in the form of a dilemma; that is, it is not immediately apparent what the student should do in a given situation.
5. Situations are derived from the topics identified by McPhail's 1967-1968 student survey which asked students to identify incidents in their lives which made them happy, sad, frustrated, or angry. The topics students identified as relevant to their needs were: sexual attitudes, problems with adults including those in school, economic class attitudes, and racial, cultural, religious, political and psychological conflicts (1972, pp. 23-49).
6. Questions relating to the readings are generally concerned with doing rather than theorizing.
7. The materials are open-ended in nature allowing a number of follow-up creative activities such as classroom dramas, simulations or role playing sessions, drawing, photography, or creative writing (1972, pp. 80-150 and 1978, pp. 119-158).

Summary

In the preceding sections, attempts were made to identify the features that are characteristic of each of the six value education approaches. These six approaches represent distinctive but not totally unrelated efforts to develop values in students. The distinction between the six approaches might be clarified by identifying the kinds of choices a student educated in each approach would most probably make.

The following chart presents the values education approaches and the corresponding types of choices:

One educated in:	*would make a:*
Inculcation approach	positively reinforced and socially acceptable choice
Moral Development approach	morally developed choice
Analysis approach	rational choice
Clarification approach	thoughtfully self-actualized choice
Action Learning approach	rational, personal-social growth enhancing choice
Emotional-Rational approach	emotional-rational, personal choice

Teaching Methods. The teaching methods most frequently used in the Analysis approach are individual study and group study of social value problems and issues, library and field research, recitation, and Socratic and seminar class discussions. These methods make use of common teaching techniques in analyzing various social issues like stating or clarifying the issue, questioning or substantiating the relevance of statements, applying analogous cases to qualify and refine value positions, pointing out logical and empirical inconsistencies in arguments, weighing counter arguments, and seeking and testing evidence (Newman and Oliver, 1970, pp. 293-296).

Instructional Models. There appears to be no single sanctioned instructional model used in teaching value analysis. Rather, several prominent models are frequently used. Most notable are the Reflective-Value Analysis model of Hunt and Metcalf (1968), the Columbia Associates model of Massialas and Cox (1966), the Jurisprudential model of Oliver and Shaver (1966) and Shaver and Larkins (1973), and the Value Inquiry model of Bands and Clegg (1977).

The curriculum model of Hilda Taba (1973) could be included here as it does have an analysis component. However, its rationale and purpose do not fit easily into the analysis approach. Its major emphasis lies in helping students use categories and improve their ability to categorize. In addition, Taba wished to inculcate specific values such as "the capactiy to identify with people in different cultures", "self-security", "open-mindedness", "acceptance of changes", "tolerance for uncertainty and ambiguity", and "responsiveness to democratic and human values" (Hunt and Metcalf, 1968, p. 134).

The Reflective-Value Analysis model of Hunt and Metcalf emphasizes the analysis of value concepts and the consideration of consequences of value alternatives. Within this model, students must define value concepts, predict consequences, appraise them using set criteria, and attempt to justify the criteria used. A summary of the model is presented below:

Reflective-Value Analysis Model

I. What is the nature of the object, event, or policy to be evaluated? This question plainly poses a task in concept analysis. If the students are trying to evaluate the welfare state, they should define this object as precisely and clearly as possible.

   A. How is the welfare state to be defined intentionally and extensively? By what criteria is it to be defined intentionally?

   B. If students disagree over criteria, and therefore in their definition of welfare state, how is this disagreement to be treated? Must they agree? Can they agree to disagree? Are there criteria by which welfare state ought to be defined? On what basis can we select among different sets of criteria?

II. The consequences problem.

   A. What consequences can be expected or anticipated from the policy in question? Is it true, as some have claimed, that the growth of the welfare state destroys individual incentive? How does one get evidence for answering this kind of question?

   B. If students disagree in their projection of consequences, how is this difference to be treated? Can evidence produce agreement? What is the difference between a disagreement over criteria and a disagreement over evidence?

III. Appraisal of consequences.

   A. Are the projected consequences desirable or not?

   B. By what criteria are the consequences to be appraised? How do different criteria affect one's appraisal of consequences?

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